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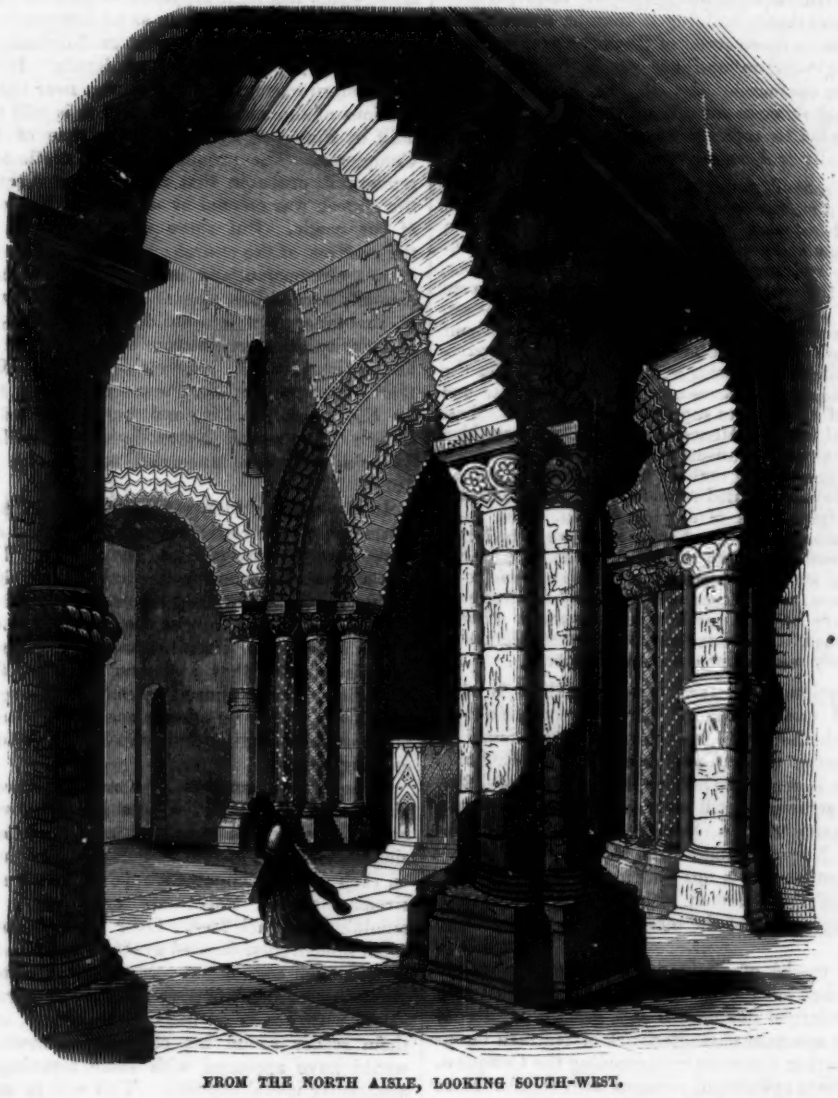
## THE CHURCH OF ST. PETER'S, NORTHAMPTON.



FROM THE NORTH AISLE, LOOKING SOUTH-WEST.

In the period that elapsed between the conversion of the Saxons to Christianity and the Norman conquest, the number of monasteries in this country greatly increased. Their foundation and endowment often proceeded from selfish purposes, the object of the founder or donor being to secure the prayers of the persons maintained by his establishment: and the Church encouraged the idea that by the united labours of religious fraternities the souls of wealthy sinners would be released from the protracted tortures of purgatory. But many of these religious houses originated in views of mere temporal interest: the lands of the priests being exempt from the charges imposed upon the possessions of the laity, many laymen were induced to found and endow monasteries, of which they became themselves the abbots, without abandoning the comforts and dignities of civil life.

Some of the greatest and richest monasteries, such as those of Westminster, Glastonbury, Croyland, St. Albans, &c., already existed at the time of the Norman conquest. But a vast increase in the number of these establishments followed that event, so that by the first year of King Henry III., no less than 476 abbeys and priories, and 81 alien priories*, had been founded and re-established.

The Crusades had some influence in increasing the number of monastic establishments; but independent of this and other causes which have been assigned, the

* Alien priories were cells, or small religious houses in one country, dependent on large foreign monasteries. When manors or tithes were given to distant religious houses, the monks, either to increase the authority of their own order, or perhaps rather to have faithful stewards of their revenues, built convenient houses for the reception of small fraternities of their body who were deputed to reside at and govern those cells.—Britton's *Architectural Antiquities.*

Normans seem to have had a sort of passion for building religious houses, for which they are celebrated by the monkish historians. William of Malmesbury says:—

Religion, which was almost extinct in England, revived after the settlement of the Normans. Then you might have seen magnificent churches and monasteries arising in every village, town and city,—in a word, so much did religious zeal flourish in our country, that a rich man would have imagined he had lived in vain, if he had not left some monument of his pious munificence.

A portion of one of the results of the Norman zeal is shown in our frontispiece, but before we refer particularly to that remarkable building it may be desirable to distinguish between those styles of Christian architecture, called the Anglo-Saxon and the Anglo-Norman, and which are often confounded*.

The following remarks on this subject by Dr. Milner, although intended to refer to Saxon architecture only, are almost equally true as regards Norman.

Not only the general style, but also the particular members, and even the minutest decorations of what is called Saxon architecture, were, in a general way, brought from Rome. The regular dimensions, the characteristical mouldings, the eggs and anchors, the caulicolæ and volutes, together with the whole of the Grecian entablature, were laid aside, or nearly so, both in the East and West, before our Saxon ancestors had learned to build without them. The taste for the regular orders, and the skill necessary for executing them, being lost, it was natural for the workmen of the times to leave out the more intricate and difficult parts of them, or to supply their place with others more simple and feasible. Hence, in copying the Corinthian order, which they most affected, they cut off the richer part of the foliage, leaving nothing but the stem, or bottom of it, or else they substituted rude forms of men, animals, or other fanciful figures of easy execution. The well-known Saxon mouldings, the chevron or zig-zag, the billet, the cable, the embattled fret, the lozenge, the corbel table, and a variety of such other ornaments as are supposed to be peculiar to Saxon architecture, will be found on close examination to have had their archetypes in some or other of the buildings, medals, tesselated pavements or sepulchres of Italy, before they were adopted by our ancestors.

The description of a pure Saxon building is very imperfect and unsatisfactory. Mr. Britton thinks it questionable whether there is even a single specimen of a complete Saxon church now remaining in England, although there is reason to believe that portions of different religious structures still exist which were originally built in the Saxon era (*i.e.*, from the conversion of the Saxons to the Norman conquest in 1066). Some architects even affirm that it is not difficult to trace distinctly the junction of the Norman with the Saxon work, not only by the superiority of the masonry, but by the shape of the arches.

The broad marks of distinction between Saxon and Norman churches have been usually made by assigning to the latter enlarged dimensions and greater regularity of plan. The essential characteristics of Norman buildings erected during the century succeeding the Conquest, consist in massive cylindrical columns with regular bases and capitals, with semicircular arches springing from them: very thick walls, generally supported or strengthened by broad and flat perpendicular buttresses. Sometimes the columns were square or octangular, or had smaller pillars joined to them: they were also occasionally ornamented with spiral grooves or flutings passing round them, or were covered, on the surface, with a kind of raised diamond-shape figures resembling net-work. The doors and windows were round-headed, and the latter were mostly high and narrow. Although the smaller arches were plain and simple, the principal ones were decorated with a variety of mouldings, among which were the chevron or zig-zag, the embattled fret, and the nail-head. The roofs of the Anglo-Norman churches were of timber, but there are various examples of stone-groined roofs to be found in crypts, in small churches, and in some cathedrals. The Anglo-Norman towers were massive square structures, rising to no great height above the roof of the buildings to which they were attached. The exterior of the walls was generally plain: the portals had sometimes figures sculptured in low relief over them. The west fronts were occasionally ornamented with a series of small circular arches, arranged separately, or intersecting each other so as to form pointed arches at the intersecting crossings, an embellishment which has been supposed to have afforded the first idea of Pointed architecture as an independent style*.

The Church of St. Peter's at Northampton is very remarkable for its architectural details. It is situated at the western extremity of the town, near the outer fortifications of the ancient castle, which is said to have been built by Simon de St. Liz, in the time of William the Conqueror. The proximity of the castle to the church renders it probable that they were connected, and that the church was erected by one of the Norman occupiers of the castle. But there is no memorial preserved of the erection of the church; and though the local history details circumstantially many public events relating to councils, assemblies, sieges, &c., yet no notice is taken of the time when this building was erected, nor is the singularity of its architecture described. It appears from the register of St. Andrew's priory, in Northampton, that the rectory of St. Peter's was given to that house by Simon de St. Liz, and was confirmed to it, with King's Thorpe and Upton, by Hugh Wells, bishop of Lincoln, who was translated to that see in the year 1209.

In the reign of Henry III. the right of patronage was recovered of the convent by the king, and continued for some time in the hands of the crown. The advowson was afterwards given by Edward III., in the third year of his reign, to the masters, brethren, and sisters of St. Catharine's Hospital, near the Tower of London†, with whom it hath ever since continued. It was the privilege of this church that a person accused of any crime, intending to clear himself by canonical purgation, should do it here, and in no other place of the town, having first performed his vigil and prayers in the said church the evening before.

This church consists of a nave and two narrow side aisles of equal length, with a square tower at the west end. A series of columns, consisting alternately of single shafts and of four conjoined half columns, extends on each side of the nave, supporting two rows of semicircular arches which are ornamented with zig-zag mouldings on each face. Over these arches is a row of small semicircular-headed windows on each side, but very distant from each other. Mr. Britton regards it as singular that the architect should have designed his single shafts with bands or belts at the centre, and not placed them rather round the clustered columns, where they would have appeared with some meaning, and for an apparently useful purpose. This will be understood by reference to the cut, in which are delineated the single as well as the clustered shafts, and the form and ornaments of the arches.

This structure also contains many specimens of the grotesque imagery of this period, when foliage, birds, beasts, monsters, rude volutes with scrolls, &c., may often be seen incongruously blended on the capitals.

Mr. Britton calls the western end of the tower an architectural riddle. It comprises an arch-moulding, or series of mouldings, elaborately charged with varied scroll-work, foliage, and interlaced ornaments. This arch does not appear to have belonged to a doorway or a window. and

* The reader will find a popular History of Architecture, contained in three Supplements, *Saturday Magazine* Vol XVI

* Our chief authority in this article is the fifth volume of Mr. Britton's *Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain.*

† This institution has been removed within these few years to the Regent's Park.

the difficulty is to account for its purport or meaning. The angular buttresses are also singular, if not unique. They are merely ornamental, for they are wholly unnecessary either to support or aid the solid walls. The upper story is evidently of later date than the other part of the tower, or the original church.

Mr. Britton acknowledges the praiseworthy and unprecedented exertions of a lady and gentleman of Northampton, who have employed much time, care, and labour, in cleansing the ornamental members of the interior: by scraping off some loads of the "beautifying" white-wash and plaster of former churchwardens, they have rendered the capitals and arches of the church clear and distinct.

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## A SIMPLE METHOD OF EXCLUDING THE HOUSE-FLY FROM APARTMENTS.

A few years ago an interesting fact was made known respecting the common house-fly, and the mode by which some of the inhabitants of southern climates have freed themselves from the intrusions of that insect. As the fact alluded to might be extensively and usefully acted upon in our own country we proceed to state the particulars for the benefit of such of our readers as may be unacquainted with it.

Persons who have never visited the south of Europe, during the hot months, are doubtless unable to form anything like a correct idea of the annoyance occasioned by flies; but the accounts of travellers who have themselves experienced it, are sufficient to show that they are a much more formidable pest in those countries than with us.

It is not, (says Arthur Young,) that they bite, sting, or hurt, but they buzz, teaze, and worry; your mouth, eyes, ears, and nose are full of them; they swarm on every eatable, and if they are not incessantly driven away by a person who has nothing else to do, to eat a meal is impossible.

Nor is it only to Spain, Italy, and the other warm regions of Europe that this nuisance is confined: it seems equally prevalent in the other hot countries of the world; while in the more temperate climes we find the same evil only in a mitigated form. During the latter part of our summer, the numbers of these insects that enter our apartments, and the active curiosity they display in perching on and running over every object in it, and also the personal annoyances we suffer from them are sufficiently known. The remedies invented to lessen the inconvenience, are almost entirely useless, seeing that if we destroy a large number of these insects by sweetened infusions of green tea, quassia, &c., a number equally large is generally ready to take the place of the destroyed.

It was, therefore, on a subject of general interest that Mr. Spence wrote, when he communicated to the Entomological Society the account of a mode employed by a friend of his in Florence to remove this draw-back to the comfort of existence. He tells us that his curiosity was greatly excited on being told by a gentleman residing in the neighbourhood of that city, that for two or three years he had entirely succeeded in excluding flies from his apartments though allowing the windows to be open wide for the admission of air. While the sitting and dining-rooms of his neighbours swarmed with them, a strict search was necessary to detect even two or three in his apartments.

The apparent impossibility of excluding flies from a room where the windows were wide open was explained by a fact of a very extraordinary kind, that is, that flies will not pass through the meshes of a net, even though those meshes are more than an inch in diameter. Therefore the plan of this gentleman was simply to suspend a net made of light-coloured thread to the outside of the window, and although every mesh was large enough, not only to admit one fly but several flies with expanded wings to pass through at the same moment, yet from some inexplicable dread of venturing across the mesh-work, these insects were effectually excluded. The gentleman who thus exhibited the merits of the plan to Mr. Spence did not pretend to have been the inventor of it. He said that he first heard of it at a monastery near Florence, and afterwards from an artist at Rome, who warmly expatiated on the important advantage it conferred upon him in being able to work in his studio with open windows, and yet be free from the personal annoyance of flies, and the equally great one of their settling on the newly-painted picture.

The cost of a thread net is very trifling, and the trouble attending its use is small. It may be firmly secured on the outside of the window as soon as the flies begin to be troublesome, and allowed to remain till the cold weather; or, better perhaps for those who admit the comfort of frequent window-cleanings, it may be stretched to a slight outer frame of wood, and in that manner easily fixed to the window or removed from it. A substitute might even be found for a net by fixing small nails round the window frame at the distance of about an inch from each other, and stretching threads across both vertically and horizontally.

It is necessary to state that in order for this plan of excluding flies to succeed it is essential that the light enter the room, *on one side only*, for if there be an opposite or side-window the flies pass through the net without scruple. The fact of these insects being excluded by the simple means above stated, (when the room is lighted from one side only) has been repeatedly noticed, and fully confirmed. Mr. Spence says that several intelligent friends of his, resident in Italy, have often seen it adopted with perfect success, and one of them adds that it is not even necessary to have a net, or threads arranged both vertically and horizontally so as to resemble one, but that if threads be stretched in a horizontal direction only across the openings of windows, at the distance of about an inch from each other, this is sufficient to keep out the flies.

Nor are we dependent only on accounts of this fact, as received from a foreign country; it has been noticed and confirmed also by observers in England. Dr. Stanley gives an account, in the *Transactions of the Entomological Society*, of some experiments entered on by him, in order to the satisfactory investigation of this singular discovery. Nets of various coloured worsted were prepared, the size of the meshes varying from three quarters to one inch on the side of the square. These were stretched over the two windows of a room much exposed to the troublesome intrusion of flies, particularly the blue-bottle (*Musca vomitoria*) attracted to the spot by a trellis covered with the sweet-scented clematis, honey-suckles, and other flowering plants. So great was the annoyance occasioned by these insects that the sashes were often kept closed, even on the hottest days, in order to exclude them. But no sooner were the nets set up, than all inconvenience was at an end.

I could perceive and hear them, (says Dr. Stanley,) hovering on the other side of my barriers; but though they now and then settled on the meshes, I do not recollect a single instance of one venturing across the boundary.

When one of the nets was withdrawn, or a door was opened communicating with another room, several flies immediately entered, and in attempting to drive them out through the netted window it was observed that they flew with violence towards the upper panes, avoiding the net-work below.

A net was now prepared of very fine pack-thread with enlarged meshes of an inch and a quarter to the square, and this was found to answer the purpose as effectually as the smaller worked coloured worsteds.

So fine and comparatively invisible was the pack-thread net, that there was no apparent diminution of either light or the distant view, and for the remainder of the summer and autumn I was enabled to enjoy the fresh air with open windows without the fear of the annoyance I had heretofore experienced. I should also add that, though wasps occasionally came through, the number was very much diminished.

The fact being thus established, we naturally seek for the reason why these simple nets of thread are so alarming to the house fly, as to keep it from ever venturing to penetrate through the meshes, although they are so much wider than its size demands. First, then, it has been supposed that the flies take the thread-nets for spiders' webs, and so their instinct leads them to avoid them. But Mr. Spence doubts the existence of any peculiar instinct leading them to avoid the spider's web, judging from the number of flies which are constantly caught in those snares. And if such instinct existed, he thinks it would lead the common house-fly chiefly to avoid the horizontal webs of the house-spider, to which the thread nets bear no resemblance. And if it equally sought to avoid the concentric-circled nets of the garden spider, to which the thread-nets bear some, though a very faint resemblance, it is unaccountable how the having a thorough light in the room from an opposite or side window should dispel the apprehensions of the fly, since this very circumstance would make the thread-nets more closely to resemble this description of web, which is usually fixed in open places with a free admission of light on each side. Dr. Stanley's opinion on this subject is important, although it does not account for the very remarkable fact of flies passing the meshes when a light comes from the opposite side of the room. He says,

I attribute this valuable effect of net-work to the highly magnifying power of the organ of vision, added to the small focal length of the lens of the eye; in consequence of which, the enlargement of each thread in their rapid flight presents a succession of obstacles not discernible in the solid obstruction of the panes of clear glass, against which they strike with the full accelerated force of motion when endeavouring to avoid the attempts of those who would catch them.

It is very remarkable that an allusion to this fact appears to be made in the writings of Herodotus. After giving a general description of the customs, manners, and religion of the Egyptians, he speaks of the natural history of the country, and a passage occurs of which the following is Mr. Spence's translation.

But against the gnats, being in great numbers, these are the means they have invented: the towers are of service to those who inhabit the upper parts of the marshes, and ascending into them they sleep there, for the gnats, on account of the winds, are unable to fly high. But those who live around the marshes have invented other means instead of towers. Every man of them possesses a casting-net with which during the day he catches fishes, and at night he makes use of it in the bed where he reposes, round which he places the net, and then having crept under it, he sleeps. But the gnats, if he sleeps wrapped up in a woollen or linen garment, bite through these, but through the net they do not even attempt to bite.

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THE world is seldom what it seems
To man, who dimly sees;
Realities appear as dreams,
And dreams realities.
The Christian's years, though slow their flight,
When he is called away,
Are but the watches of a night,
And Death the dawn of day.

JAMES MONTGOMERY.

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A SOUND head, a simple heart, and a spirit dependent upon Christ will suffice to conduct us in every variety of circumstances.

## CHINESE FEET.

CHINESE SHOE.

AMONG the customs peculiar to that remarkable people, the Chinese, whose history and manners are now so interesting to us, there is none, perhaps, more universally known than that which forms the subject of our present notice. Yet although we have repeatedly heard the fact stated, that the ladies of China are in the habit of compressing their feet into the smallest possible dimensions, it may not be so well known *how* this is done, and what are the results of such an unnatural practice.

While we give some interesting particulars on this subject from the most recent authorities, we would at the same time caution our female readers, not to look with contempt on Chinese ladies on account of these instances of vanity and folly; but to remember that even here, notwithstanding the superior light and knowledge in which we live, too many instances occur of as great an absurdity, and often a more fatal one,—in the compression of the waist, and the consequent injury done to the vital powers by tight clothing.

First, then, it does not appear to be generally known that the process by which Chinese ladies are deprived of the proper use of their feet, is one which involves the endurance of excessive pain in early childhood. Mr. Lay informs us that, at five years of age the rich man's daughter has her foot so firmly bound that, in the native phrase, the whole is *killed*. The foot below the instep is pressed into a line with the leg, to add to the height of the little sufferer, while two of the toes are bent under the sole, that its breadth may be only of the least dimensions. The agony of such a process it would be hard to estimate; but it is said to last about six weeks, when the wasting of all the parts, and the cessation of many of their functions, seem to render the whole insensible to pain. An iron is used to force the foot into the required shape.

The customs respecting the precise mode in which the painful operation is performed, differ in the various provinces of China. In some places the instep is completely broken, in others it is not materially injured, but a high heel is employed to keep it in the prescribed position. There is also a difference as to the number of toes bent under the sole of the foot. More attention is paid by the higher, than by the lower classes to this killing of the foot, but in all it prevails to a greater or less extent. Even in cases (such as that of girls intended for domestic servants) where it might be expected that everything calculated to impede brisk movement would be, as a matter of course, dispensed with, the prevailing taste for small feet carries everything before it, and the duties of the household are gone through with the usual shuffling, tottering, gait.

Mr. Bingham relates that, in one of the trips made by his party to the different islands, they had a good opportunity of minutely examining the far-famed little feet of the Chinese women. Having made their wishes in this respect known to the natives, and engaged compliance by "the shine of a new and very bright loopee," a girl of sixteen sat down and began to unwind the bandages which are employed to produce the unnatural diminutiveness of these members. The upper bandage passed round the leg, and over a tongue which came up from

the heel. The shoe was next removed, and then the second bandage which supplied the place of a stocking, and was very tightly wound round the toes and ankles. The leg, from the knee downwards was much wasted; the foot appeared as if broken up at the instep, while the four small toes were bent flat, and pressed under the foot, the great toe only being allowed to retain its natural position. By the breaking of the instep a high arch is formed between the heel and the toe, enabling the individual to step with them on an even surface.

The toes thus doubled up could only be moved with the hand sufficiently to show that they were not actually grown into the foot. Nevertheless the women contrived to walk with tolerable ease, their gait resembling the mincing walk of the French ladies. Children, while suffering from this barbarous practice, are described as scrambling about, balancing themselves with arms extended, and suggesting the idea of an old hen between walking and flying. As they advance in years their vanity is played upon by being assured that they would be exceedingly ugly, with large feet; and they are thus reconciled to what they consider a necessary evil. But it appears that the children are remarkably patient under pain:—

A poor little child, (says our authority) about five years old, was brought to our surgeon, having been most dreadfully scalded, part of its dress adhering to the skin. During the painful operation of removing the linen, it only now and then said, "he-yaw, he-yaw."

The folly of the women in thus distorting their feet is somewhat more pardonable when it is considered that the general opinion of the men in that country is strongly in favour of the continuance of the custom.

A foot two inches in length (says Mr. Lay) is the idol of a Chinaman, on which he lavishes the most precious epithets which nature and language can supply. But its beauties are altogether ideal: for when stripped of its gay investments, it is a piteous mass of lifeless integument, which resembles the skin of a washerwoman's hand after it has undergone a long maceration in soap and water. The sight of it is well fitted to excite our compassion, not our commendation,—a beautiful limb crushed into a heap of deformity. The thought of seeing a Chinawoman's foot might awaken a smile; but I think I might defy the most merry-hearted to laugh, when the loosened bandages had disclosed the sad reality to his eye. But fancy has played her part so well, that this piece of ruined nature, which is seldom, or perhaps, never seen by men, is treated as the prime essential of all female beauty.

To show that there is something like masonic secresy about this small foot, I need only mention that the servant, when her mistress proceeded to unwind the bandages, blushed, and turned her face to the wall.

Should Christianity begin to shed any of her fair beams upon this vast empire, this cruel and revolting practice will be dropped, as unable to bear the light. In walking, the knee-joint does not bend, so that any one may imitate the much-admired mincing gait of the country, by stepping with only a rotary motion of the hip-joint, and keeping the knee and ancle stiffly in one position. To ornament and relieve this mode of progressing, the body is thrown into an assortment of ever-varying inclinations, whether the fair owner sit or stand, while the arms are always shifting their state, both to display their own peculiar graces, and to give effect to the whole of the person.

CHINESE SHOE FULL SIZE.

The accompanying figure (fig. 2) gives an idea of the small size to which some of the Chinese ladies are able to reduce their feet, representing one form of shoe, as worn by them; there is little, however, either in this or the preceding figure that will suit our notions of beauty.

The result of this practice on the general health of Chinese women has now to be considered. With regard to the immediate consequences arising from the operation, we find some difference in the accounts of writers on the subject. Mr. Gutzlaff speaks of the practice as not only imparting a hobbling gait, and giving the appearance of malformation, but as subjecting the ladies to disease and festering of the feet. Mr. Lay also learned from the chief person belonging to the island of Honim, that his sister suffered much anguish in the sole of her foot; but this person denied that such results usually follow on the practice of destroying the foot, and Mr. Lay himself makes the following remarks,

Among the multitudes that come for health and cure to the hospital, no one has yet been met with whose ailments could be imputed to that source. This is a curious fact, and such as might well lead us to desire a more intimate acquaintance with the anatomy of this morbid organ, that we might see how nature under the pressure of so great a calamity has contrived to maintain the intercourse of the arterial and nervous system, and keep the limb from being materially injured by it. The development of the muscles which form the calf of the leg being checked, the limb consequently tapers from its socket down to the foot, without any risings or inflections. This is regarded as the perfection of beauty by the Chinese.

Chinese women of the higher orders have generally pale features. This also is in accordance with the national ideas of beauty; but its cause is doubtless to be found in the diminished health and activity of the sex owing to their crippled feet, and the impossibility of taking sufficient lively exercise.

Thus, in whatever light we regard this unnatural practice we only see matter for regret that it should ever have been adopted, and that it should have taken such firm root in China. The period of its introduction is unknown, but it must be extremely ancient. It has been imagined that it took its origin in an arbitrary measure for keeping women to their own homes, since we find great jealousy among the Chinese as to the interference of women in matters that do not belong to them. Thus a Chinese poem translated by Morrison is in the following uncomplimentary strain.

A beautiful and clever woman should be regarded
As a hoarse and hateful bird:
Women with long tongues
Are stepping-stones to misery.
State commotions come not from heaven;
They are born by, and come forth from *Woman*.

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Dr. Leyden was remarkable for his memory. He could repeat correctly a long act of parliament, or any similar document, after having once read it. When he was, on one occasion, congratulated by a friend on his extraordinary power in this respect, he replied, that instead of an advantage it was often a source of great inconvenience. This he explained by saying, that when he wished to recollect a particular point in anything which he had read, he could do it only by repeating to himself the whole from the commencement till he reached the point which he wished to recall.

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All human hearts are closely viewed
By Him who reigns supreme above:
Nor does the smallest germ of good
Escape His notice, or His love.

He sees the purpose of the breast;
And if that purpose be sincere,
'Tis with His righteous favour blest,
Though the good action ne'er appear.

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## THE HISTORY OF LAURA BRIDGMAN,

TAKEN FROM THE ACCOUNT OF HIM WHO WAS THE MEANS, IN THE HANDS OF PROVIDENCE, OF GIVING HER THAT INSTRUCTION WHICH HAS GREATLY ALLEVIATED HER AFFLICTIONS.

### I.

"LAURA BRIDGMAN was born in Hanover, New Hampshire, on the 21st of December, 1829. She is described as having been a very sprightly and pretty infant, with bright blue eyes. She was, however, so puny and feeble until she was a year and a half old, that her parents hardly hoped to rear her. She was subject to severe fits, which seemed to rack her frame almost beyond her power of endurance; and life was held by the feeblest tenure. But when a year and a half old, she seemed to rally; the dangerous symptoms subsided, and at twenty months old she was perfectly well.

"Then her mental powers rapidly developed themselves, and during the four months of health which she enjoyed, she appears to have displayed a considerable degree of intelligence. But suddenly she sickened again; her disease raged with great violence during five weeks, when her eyes and ears were inflamed, suppurated, and their contents were discharged. But though sight and hearing were gone for ever, the poor child's sufferings were not ended. The fever raged during seven weeks; for five months she was kept in bed in a darkened room; it was a year before she could walk unsupported, and two years before she could sit up all day. It was now observed that her sense of smell was almost entirely destroyed; and, consequently, that her taste was much blunted. It was not until four years of age that her bodily health was restored, and she was able to enter upon her apprenticeship of life and the world.

"But what a situation was hers! The darkness and the silence of the tomb were around her; no mother's smile called forth her answering smile; no father's voice taught her to imitate his sounds—they, brothers and sisters, were but forms of matter which resisted her touch, but which differed not from the furniture of the house, save in warmth, and in the power of locomotion, and not even in these respects from the dog and the cat.

"But the immortal spirit which had been implanted within her could not die, nor be maimed nor mutilated; and though most of its avenues of communication with the world were cut off, it began to manifest itself through the others. As soon as she could walk, she began to explore the room, and then the house; she became familiar with the form, density, weight, and heat, of every thing she could lay her hands upon. She followed her mother, and felt her hands and arms, as she was occupied about the house; and her disposition to imitate, led her to repeat every thing herself. She even learned to sew a little, and to knit.

"At this time, I was so fortunate as to hear of the child, and immediately hastened to Hanover to see her. I found her with a well-formed figure, a strongly-marked, nervous-sanguine temperament, a large and beautifully shaped head, and the whole system in healthy action. The parents were easily induced to let her come to Boston, and on the 4th of October, 1837, they brought her to the Institution.

"For a while she was much bewildered; and, after waiting about two weeks, until she became acquainted with her new locality, and somewhat familiar with the inmates, the attempt was made to give her knowledge of arbitrary signs, by which she could interchange thoughts with others. There was one of two ways to be adopted: either to go on to build up a language of signs, on the basis of the natural language which she had already commenced herself, or to teach her the purely arbitrary language in common use; that is, to give her a sign for every individual thing, or to give her a knowledge of letters by combination of which she might express her idea of the existence, and the mode and condition of existence, of any thing. The former would have been easy, but very ineffectual; the latter seemed very difficult, but, if accomplished, very effectual. I determined therefore to try the latter.

"The first experiments were made by taking articles in common use, such as knives, forks, spoons, bags, &c., and pasting upon them labels with their names printed in raised letters. These she felt very carefully, and soon, of course, distinguished that the crooked lines *s p o o n* differed as much from the crooked lines *k e y*, as the spoon differed from the key in form. Then small detached labels, with the same words printed on them, were put into her hands; and she soon observed that they were similar to the ones pasted on the articles. She showed her perception of this similarity by laying the label *k e y* upon the key, and the label *s p o o n* upon the spoon. She was encouraged here by the natural sign of approbation, patting on the head. The same process was then repeated with all the articles which she could handle; and she very easily learned to place the proper labels upon them. It was evident, however, that the only intellectual exercise was that of imitation and memory. She recollected that the label *b o o k* was placed upon a book, and she repeated the process first from imitation, next from memory, with only the motive of love of approbation, but apparently without the intellectual perception of any relation between the things.

"After a while, instead of labels, the individual letters were given to her on detached bits of paper: they were arranged side by side, so as to spell *b o o k*, *k e y*, &c.; then they were mixed up in a heap, and a sign was made for her to arrange them herself, so as to express the words *b o o k*, *k e y*, &c., and she did so.

"Hitherto the process had been mechanical, and the success about as great as teaching a very knowing dog a variety of tricks. The poor child had sat in mute amazement, and patiently imitated every thing her teacher did; but now the truth began to flash upon her: her intellect began to work; she perceived that here was a way by which she herself could make up a sign of any thing that was in her own mind, and show it to another mind; and at once her countenance lighted up with a human expression: it was no longer a dog, or a parrot—it was an immortal spirit, eagerly seizing upon a new link of union with other spirits! I could almost fix upon the moment when this truth dawned upon her mind, and spread its light to her countenance; I saw that the great obstacle was overcome, and that henceforward nothing but patient and persevering, but plain and straightforward, efforts were to be used. The result so far is quickly related, and easily conceived; but not so was the process, for many weeks of apparently unprofitable labour were passed before it was effectual.

"When it was said above that a sign was made, it was intended to say, that the action was performed by her teacher, she feeling his hands, and then imitating the motion.

"The next step was to procure a set of metal types, with the different letters of the alphabet cast upon their ends; also a board, in which were square holes, into which holes she could set the types; so that the letters on their ends could close be felt above the surface. Then, on any article being handed to her, for instance, a pencil, or a watch, she would select the component letters, and arrange them on her board, and read them with apparent pleasure. She was exercised for several weeks in this way, until her vocabulary became extensive; and then the important step was taken of teaching her how to represent the different letters by the position of her fingers, instead of the cumbrous apparatus of the board and types. She accomplished this speedily and easily, for her intellect had begun to work in aid of her teacher, and her progress was rapid. This was the period, about three months after she had commenced, that the first

report of her case was made, in which it is stated that 'she has just learned the manual alphabet, as used by the deaf mutes, and it is a subject of delight and wonder to see how rapidly, correctly, and eagerly, she goes on with her labours. Her teacher gives her a new object, for instance, a pencil; first, lets her examine it, and get an idea of its use, then teaches her how to spell it, by making the signs for the letters with her own fingers; the child grasps her hand, and feels her fingers, as the different letters are formed; she turns her head a little on one side, like a person listening closely; her lips are apart; she seems scarcely to breathe; and her countenance, at first anxious, gradually changes to a smile, as she comprehends the lesson. She then holds up her tiny fingers, and spells the word in the manual alphabet; next, she takes her types and arranges her letters; and last, to make sure that she is right, she takes the whole of the type composing the word, and places them upon, or in contact with, the pencil, or whatever the object may be.'

"The whole of the succeeding year was passed in gratifying her eager inquiries for the names of every object which she could possibly handle, in exercising her in the use of the manual alphabet, in extending in every possible way her knowledge of the physical relations of things, and in proper care of her health. At the end of the year a report of her case was made, from which the following is an extract:—

"'It has been ascertained, beyond the possibility of doubt, that she cannot see a ray of light, cannot hear the least sound, and never exercises her sense of smell, if she have any. Thus her mind dwells in darkness and stillness, as profound as that of a closed tomb at midnight. Of beautiful sights, and sweet sounds, and pleasant odours, she has no conception; nevertheless, she seems as happy and playful as a bird or a lamb; and the employment of her intellectual faculties, or the acquirement of a new idea, gives her a vivid pleasure, which is plainly marked in her expressive features. She never seems to repine, but has all the buoyancy and gaiety of childhood. She is fond of fun and frolic, and when playing with the rest of the children, her shrill laugh sounds loudest of the group. When left alone she seems very happy if she have her knitting or sewing, and will busy herself for hours; if she have no occupation, she evidently amuses herself by imaginary dialogues, or by recalling past impressions; she counts with her fingers, or spells out names of things which she has recently learned in the manual alphabet of the deaf mutes. In this lonely self-communion she seems to reason, reflect, and argue; if she spell a word wrong with the fingers of her right hand, she instantly strikes it with her left, as her teacher does, in sign of disapprobation; if right, then she pats herself upon the head, and looks pleased. She sometimes purposely spells a word wrong with the left hand, looks roguish for a moment, and laughs, and then, with the right hand, strikes the left, as if to correct it.

"'During the year she has attained great dexterity in the use of the manual alphabet of the deaf mutes; and she spells out the words and sentences which she knows, so fast and so deftly, that only those accustomed to this language can follow with the eye the rapid motions of her fingers.

"'But, wonderful as is the rapidity with which she writes her thoughts upon the air, still more is the ease and accuracy with which she reads the words thus written by another; grasping their hands in hers, and following every movement of their fingers, as letter after letter conveys their meaning to her mind. It is in this way that she converses with her blind playmates, and nothing can more forcibly show the power of mind in forcing matter to its purpose, than a meeting between them. For if great talent and skill are necessary for two pantomimes to paint their thoughts and feelings by the movements of the body, and the expression of the countenance, how much greater the difficulty when darkness shrouds them both, and the one can hear no sound!

"'When Laura is walking through a passage way, with her hands spread before her, she knows instantly every one she meets, and passes them with a sign of recognition: but if it be a girl of her own age, and especially if it be one of her favourites, there is instantly a bright smile of recognition, and a twining of arms, a grasping of hands, and a swift telegraphing upon the tiny fingers; whose rapid evolutions convey the thoughts and feelings from the outposts of one mind to those of the other. There are questions and answers, exchanges of joy or sorrow, there are kissings and partings, just as between little children with all their senses!'"

[DICKENS' *American Notes.*]

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TENDERNESS of conscience is always to be distinguished from Scrupulousness. The conscience cannot be kept too sensible and tender: but scrupulousness arises from bodily and mental infirmity, and discovers itself in a multitude of ridiculous, and superstitious, and painful feelings.

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THE head is dull in discerning the value of God's expedients, and the heart cold, sluggish, and reluctant in submitting to them; but the head is lively in the invention of its own expedients, and the heart eager and sanguine in the pursuit of them. No wonder, then, that God subjects both the head and the heart to a course of continual correction.

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### EVILS OF QUACKERY TO INFANTS.

WHO would not lend a sympathizing sigh,
To hear yon infant's pity-moving cry?
That feeble sob, unlike the new-born note,
Which came with vigour from the op'ning throat;
When air and light first rush'd on lungs and eyes,
And there was life and spirit in the cries;
Now an abortive, faint attempt to weep,
Is all we hear, sensation is asleep:
The boy was healthy, and at first exprest
His feelings loudly, when he fail'd to rest;
When cramm'd with food, and tighten'd every limb,
To cry aloud was what pertain'd to him;
Then the good Nurse (who, had she borne a brain,
Had sought the cause that made her babe complain)
Has all her efforts, loving soul! applied,
To set the cry, and not the cause, aside:
She gave her powerful sweet without remorse,
*The sleeping Cordial*—she had tried its force,
Repeating oft; the infant, freed from pain,
Rejected food, but took the dose again,
Sinking to sleep; while she her joy exprest,
That her dear charge could sweetly take his rest;
Soon may she spare her cordial; not a doubt
Remains, but quickly he will rest without.

This moves our grief and pity, and we sigh
To think what numbers from these causes die.—CRABBE.

---

## EASY LESSONS IN CHESS.

### XV.

### THE KING'S GAMBIT.

| WHITE. | BLACK. |
|---|---|
| 1. K. P. two squares. | 1. K. P. two squares. |
| 2. K. B. P. two squares. | 2. P. takes P. |
| 3. K. Kt. to K. B. third square | 3. K. Kt. P. two squares. |
| 4. K. B. to Q. B fourth square. | |

In the last Lesson it was stated that Black's fourth move may be either K. Kt. P. advances or K. B. to K. Kt. second square, and that Chess authorities differ as to which is the better move. We have already played two games in which Black pushed on the Kt. P. at the fourth move: on the present occasion he will adopt the more common and probably the safer expedient of moving his K. B.

| | |
|---|---|
| | 4. K. B. to K. Kt. second square. |
| 5 K. R P two squares | 5. K. R. P. one square. |

This is Black's best move. It is common, however, for the young student to play K. B. P. one square, in which case you play Kt. takes K. Kt. P., and on his retaking you get a winning game by checking with Q. at K. R. fifth square.

| | |
|---|---|
| 6 Q. P. two squares. | 6. Q. P. one square. |
| 7. Q. B. P. one square. | 7. Q. B P. one square |
| 8. Q. to K. second square. | |

You might also have played your Q. to her Kt. third square.

8. Q. B. to K. third square.

Although it is desirable, in the defence of the gambit, to get rid of the adversary's K. B. on account of its great attacking power and the readiness with which it co-operates with the Q., yet it is necessary to be cautious how an exchange is offered. In the present case Black loses the game by his anxiety to change off your K. B.

| | |
|---|---|
| 9. K. B. takes B. | 9. K. B. P. takes B. |
| 10. K. P. one square. | 10 Q. P. takes P. |
| 11. Q. P. takes P. | |

This pawn is now well situated, and its effect is greatly to prevent the range of your adversary's pieces.

11. Q. Kt. to Q. second square.

12. K. Kt. P. one square.

The object in moving this pawn is to break up his pawns, and to penetrate into his game with your Q., K. R., and Q. B.

12. K. Kt. P. advances.

| | |
|---|---|
| 13. K. Kt. P. takes P. | 13. K. Kt. P. takes Kt. |
| 14. Q. takes K. Kt. P. | |

By this sacrifice you support your centre pawn, and prepare for attack.

14. Q. to K. second square.

This move is quite necessary to prevent your threatened attack.

| | |
|---|---|
| 15. Q. Kt. to Q. second. | 15. Castles on Queen's side. |
| 16. Q. Kt. P. two squares. | |

When your adversary evades an attack by Castling, it is generally advisable to advance the pawns upon the side to which he has retreated. You thus confine his motions and get supports for your pieces.

16. K. R. P. one square.

The object of this move is to enable him to move K. Kt. and K. B.

| | |
|---|---|
| 17. Q. Kt. to K. fourth square. | 17. Q. Kt. to its third square. |
| 18. Q. B. to K. third square. | 18. K. Kt. to K. R. third square. |
| 19. Q. B. to Q. B. fifth square. | 19. Q. to Q. B. second square |
| 20. Q. R. P. two squares. | |

As you have opportunity you improve the attack on this side of the board.

20. K. B. home.

| | |
|---|---|
| 21. Q. R. P. one square. | 21. K. B. takes Q. B. |
| 22. Q. Kt. P. takes B. | |

It would have been very bad play to have taken the B. with your Kt. You now have an opening through which you can attack

22. Q. Kt. to Q. second square.

| | |
|---|---|
| 23. Kt. to Q. sixth square, chg. | 23. K. to Q. Kt. square. |
| 24. Q. R. to Q. Kt. square. | 24. Q. Kt. takes P. at adv. Q. B. fifth square. |
| 25. Kt. takes Q. Kt. P. | |

This is a beautiful move.

25. Kt. takes Kt.

| | |
|---|---|
| 26. Q. R. P. one square. | 26. K. to Q. R. square |
| 27. Q. R. takes Kt. | 27. Q. to her B. square. |
| 28. K. R. to K. R. second square. | 28. Q. R. to Q. second square. |
| 29. K. R. to Q. Kt. second square. | 29. K. R. to K. R. second square. |
| 30. Q. takes Q. B. P | |

Black must now be mated immediately, for if he play Q. takes Q. you mate at once by playing the R. to Q. Kt. eighth square. If his Q. takes your R. you retake with the Pawn, checking, and the mate is equally certain.

This game, which is selected from Philidor, is admirably played throughout, and will repay an attentive study on the part of the student.

## SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS.

### PROBLEM X.

| WHITE. | BLACK. |
|---|---|
| 1. Kt. to Q. sixth square chg. | 1. Q. takes Kt. |
| 2. Q. to Q. R. sixth square chg. | 2. K. takes Q. |
| 3. B. to Q. B. eighth sq. chk-mate. | |

This very ingenious problem admits of considerable variation on both sides. Black need not take the Q. at the second move; he may move his K. to Q. Kt. or Q. R. square, in which case you mate by playing Q. to Q. B. eighth square.

If at the first move Black moves the K. you play Q. to K. Kt. eighth square, and Black has nothing but the useless move of interposing Q.

But if at the first move Black take the Kt. with his Q. B. P., your Q. gives mate at her B. eighth square.

### PROBLEM XI.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Q. to Q. B. fifth square chg. | 1. K. to Q. Kt. second square. |
| 2. Q. to Q. B. eighth square chg. | 2. K. takes Q. |
| 3. Kt. to Q. sixth square mate. | |

### PROBLEM XII.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. K. B. P. one square checking. | 1. K. to K. third square. |
| 2. Q. to Q. fifth square checking. | 2. K. takes Q. |
| 3. Kt. to K. Kt. fifth square, discovering check and check-mate. | |

### PROBLEM XIII.

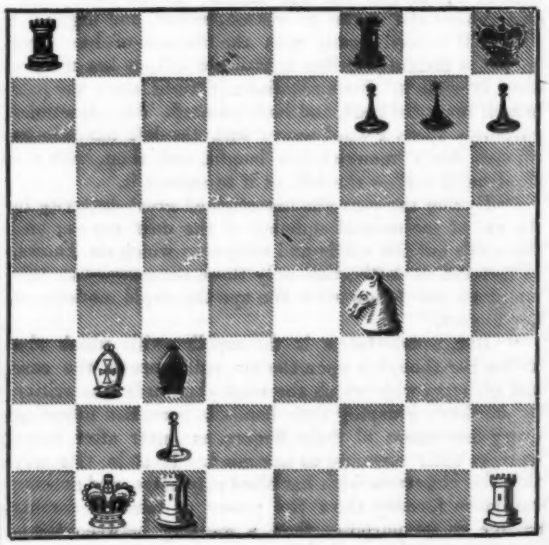
| | |
|---|---|
| 1. R. to Q. R. sixth square chg. | 1. R. interposes. |
| 2. R. to Q. square. | 2. R. takes R. or K. moves. |
| 3. One of the Rooks gives check-mate. | |

### PROBLEM XIV.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Q. to Q. B. fourth sq. checkg. | 1. K. to Q. seventh square. |
| 2. Q. to Q. B. square. | 2. K. takes Q. |
| 3 Kt. to Q. Kt. third square check-mate. | |

If the young student has taken pains to solve the foregoing problems he will, by this time, have acquired considerable facility in answering problems in which the mate is required to be given in not more than two or three moves. We are now about to introduce problems in four moves; the following is a very easy example, and the student ought to solve it without much difficulty. In future Lessons we will introduce some problems requiring an exertion of greater skill.

PROBLEM XV. *White to move, and to give check-mate on the fourth move.*



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